



ELSEVIER

Available online at www.sciencedirect.com

SCIENCE @ DIRECT®

FINITE FIELDS
AND THEIR
APPLICATIONS

Finite Fields and Their Applications 11 (2005) 165–181

<http://www.elsevier.com/locate/ffa>

Highly degenerate quadratic forms over finite fields of characteristic 2

Robert W. Fitzgerald

Department of Mathematics, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, IL 62901-4408, USA

Received 17 December 2003

Communicated by Zhe-Xian Wan

Available online 24 August 2004

Abstract

Let K/F be an extension of finite fields of characteristic two. We consider quadratic forms written as the trace of $xR(x)$, where $R(x)$ is a linearized polynomial. We show all quadratic forms can be so written, in an essentially unique way. We classify those R , with coefficients 0 or 1, where the form has a codimension 2 radical. This is applied to maximal Artin–Schreier curves and factorizations of linearized polynomials.

© 2004 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

Keywords: Quadratic form; Trace; Linearized polynomial

0. Introduction

Let q be a 2-power, $q = 2^f$. Set $F = GF(q)$ and let $K = GF(q^k)$ be an extension. Let

$$R(x) = \sum_{j=0}^h \varepsilon_j x^{q^j},$$

with each $\varepsilon_j \in K$. We consider the quadratic forms $Q_R^K : K \rightarrow F$ given by $Q_R^K(x) = \text{tr}_{K/F}(xR(x))$.

E-mail address: rfitzg@math.siu.edu (R.W. Fitzgerald).

These trace forms have appeared in a variety of contexts. They have been used to compute weight enumerators of certain binary codes [1,2], to construct curves with many rational points and the associated trace codes [9], as part of an authentication scheme [3], and to construct certain binary sequences in [5,4].

In each of these applications one wants the number of solutions (in K) to $Q_R^K(x) = 0$, denoted by $N(Q_R^K)$. This is easily worked out (see [7, 6.26, 6.32]) in terms of the standard classification of quadratic forms:

$$N(Q_R^K) = \frac{1}{q}(q^k + \Lambda(Q_R^K)(q-1)\sqrt{q^{k+w}}).$$

Where w is the dimension of the radical, $v = (k - w)/2$ and

$$\Lambda(Q_R^K) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } Q_R^K \simeq z^2 + \sum_{i=1}^v x_i y_i \\ 1 & \text{if } Q_R^K \simeq \sum_{i=1}^v x_i y_i \\ -1 & \text{if } Q_R^K \simeq x_1^2 + s y_1^2 + \sum_{i=1}^v x_i y_i. \end{cases}$$

Here s is any element of F with $\text{tr}_{F/GF(2)}(s) = 1$.

However, there is no simple way to determine the dimension of the radical or the invariant Λ . The one general result is due to Klapper [6] which only covers the case when R consists of a single term. In roughly half the applications [1,2,9] one wants highly degenerate forms, which give large $N(Q_R^K)$ when $\Lambda = 1$. We restrict to those R with all coefficients $\varepsilon_i \in GF(2)$ as is the case in each of the cited papers except [9]. Our main result is to determine all such R , and all extensions K , such that the radical of Q_R^K has codimension (namely $2v$) at most 2. We compute the invariant Λ in each case.

We first show that every quadratic form $Q : K \rightarrow F$ can be written as Q_R^K in an essentially unique way. Thus our result is more general than it appears. We apply our main result to obtain a classification of those R such that the number of points on the Artin–Schreier curve $y^q + y = xR(x)$ equals the Hasse–Weil bound. We also obtain results on the factors of self-reciprocal linearized polynomials.

1. Quadratic forms

A quadratic form $Q : K \rightarrow F$ is a map such that

- (1) $Q(ax) = a^2 Q(x)$ for all $a \in F$ and $x \in K$, and
- (2) $B(x, y) \equiv Q(x + y) + Q(x) + Q(y)$ is a bilinear map $K \times K \rightarrow F$.

The radical of Q is

$$\text{rad } Q = \{x \in K : B(x, y) = 0 \text{ for all } y \in K\}.$$

The codimension of the radical, $k - \dim \text{rad } Q$ is always even.

To simplify notation, we write simply tr for $\text{tr}_{K/F}$. We will write Tr_K for the absolute trace $\text{tr}_{K/GF(2)}$.

Proposition 1.1. *Let $Q : K \rightarrow F$ be a quadratic form. Let $m = \lfloor k/2 \rfloor$. Let $h = \frac{1}{2} \text{codim rad } Q$.*

(1) *There exist $c, a_1, b_1, \dots, a_h, b_h \in K$, independent over F , such that*

$$Q(x) = \begin{cases} \text{tr}(cx)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^h \text{tr}(a_i x) \text{tr}(b_i x) & \text{if } \Lambda(Q) = 0, \\ \sum_{i=1}^h \text{tr}(a_i x) \text{tr}(b_i x) & \text{if } \Lambda(Q) = 1, \\ \text{tr}(a_1 x)^2 + \text{tr}(b_1 x)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^h \text{tr}(a_i x) \text{tr}(b_i x) & \text{if } \Lambda(Q) = -1. \end{cases}$$

(2) *There exist $\varepsilon_0, \varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_m \in K$ such that*

$$Q(x) = \text{tr} \left(x \cdot \sum_{i=0}^m \varepsilon_i x^{q^i} \right).$$

Proof. (1) Suppose $\Lambda(Q) = 1$. Pick a basis of K over F and let M be the matrix of Q with respect to this basis. We apply the classification of quadratic forms. Let $H = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and let N be the $k \times k$ matrix with h copies of H on the diagonal and the rest zero. Then there exists an invertible $k \times k$ matrix P over F such that

$$M = P^t N P,$$

$$Q(X) = X^t P^t N P X,$$

$$Q(X) = \sum_{i=1}^h (r_{2i-1} X)(r_{2i} X),$$

where r_j is the j th row of P . As map from $K \rightarrow F$, rather than from $F^k \rightarrow F$, each $r_j X$ is linear and so equal to $\text{tr}(d_j x)$ for some $d_j \in K$. The rows of P are independent over F so the d_j are also. This gives the desired representation of Q .

The cases when $\Lambda(Q) = 0$ or -1 are similar except the first copy of H in N is replaced by

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{or} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

respectively.

(2) This proof is taken from [9, 3.2, 5.1]. Our only change is to correct a slight error in the $i = 1$ term and to include the cases of $\Lambda(Q) = 0, -1$.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathrm{tr}(ax)\mathrm{tr}(bx) &= \mathrm{tr}(\mathrm{tr}(ax)bx) \\ &= \mathrm{tr}\left(\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} (ax)^{q^i}(bx)\right).\end{aligned}$$

Now

$$\mathrm{tr}(a^{q^i}b) = \mathrm{tr}(ab^{q^{k-i}})$$

so that

$$\mathrm{tr}(ax)\mathrm{tr}(bx) = \begin{cases} \mathrm{tr}(abx^2 + \sum_{i=1}^m (a^{q^i}b + ab^{q^i})x^{q^i}) & \text{if } k = 2m + 1 \text{ is odd,} \\ \mathrm{tr}(abx^2 + \sum_{i=1}^m (a^{q^i}b + ab^{q^i})x^{q^i} + a^{q^m}bx^{q^m}) & \text{if } k = 2m \text{ is even.} \end{cases}$$

In either case,

$$\mathrm{tr}(ax)\mathrm{tr}(bx) = \mathrm{tr}\left(x \cdot \sum_{j=0}^m \varepsilon'_j x^{q^j+1}\right),$$

for some $\varepsilon'_j \in K$. Lastly,

$$\mathrm{tr}(cx)^2 = \mathrm{tr}((cx)^2) = \mathrm{tr}(x \cdot c^2x).$$

Thus (1) implies (2). \square

The first representation of (1.1) is not unique. For instance,

$$\mathrm{tr}(ax)^2 + \mathrm{tr}(ax)\mathrm{tr}(bx) + \mathrm{tr}(bx)^2 = \mathrm{tr}(ax)^2 + \mathrm{tr}(ax)\mathrm{tr}((a+b)x) + \mathrm{tr}((a+b)x)^2.$$

However, for the second representation we have:

Theorem 1.2. *Let $Q : K \rightarrow F$ be a quadratic form and let $m = \lfloor k/2 \rfloor$. Then there exist unique $\varepsilon_i \in K$, $0 \leq i \leq m$, such that*

$$Q(x) = \mathrm{tr}\left(x \cdot \sum_{i=0}^m \varepsilon_i x^{q^i}\right),$$

except when k is even in which case ε_m is only unique modulo $GF(q^m)$.

Proof. We count. If we fix a basis of K over F then each quadratic form is represented uniquely by an upper triangular matrix. Hence there are $q^{k(k+1)/2}$ many quadratic forms.

Suppose $k = 2m + 1$. The number of $R(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m \varepsilon_i x^{q^i}$ is $(q^k)^{m+1} = q^{k(k+1)/2}$. Since this is the number of quadratic forms, (1.1) implies the representation $Q(x) = \text{tr}(xR(x))$ is unique.

Suppose $k = 2m$. Note that

$$(x^{q^m+1})^{q^m-1} = x^{q^k-1} \in GF(2^m)$$

for all $x \in K$. Thus if $\varepsilon \in GF(q^m)$ then $\text{tr}(x \cdot \varepsilon x^{q^m}) = 0$ for all $x \in K$. The number of $R(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m \varepsilon_i x^{q^i}$, with $\varepsilon_0, \dots, \varepsilon_{m-1} \in K$ and $\varepsilon_m \in K/GF(q^m)$ is

$$(q^k)^m \cdot (q^m) = q^{2m^2+m} = q^{k(k+1)/2}.$$

As before, this shows the representation of $Q(x)$ as $\text{tr}(xR(x))$ is unique (taking ε_m modulo $GF(q^m)$). \square

Throughout the remainder of the paper we assume

$$R(x) = \sum_{j=0}^h \varepsilon_j x^{q^j} \quad \text{with } \varepsilon_j \in GF(2),$$

where $h = \lfloor (k-1)/2 \rfloor$. Here we have dropped the ε_m term when $k = 2m$ as $\varepsilon_m = 0$ or 1, both of which are in $GF(2^m)$.

Corollary 1.3. *Let $R = \sum_{i=0}^h \varepsilon_i x^{q^i}$, where each $\varepsilon_i \in GF(2)$ and $h = \lfloor (k-1)/2 \rfloor$. Then Q_R^K has radical of codimension 2 iff there exist independent $a, b, c \in K$ such that*

$$(Ei) \quad a^{q^i} b + ab^{q^i} = \varepsilon_i \quad \text{for } 1 \leq i \leq h$$

and

$$(E0) \quad \varepsilon_0 = \begin{cases} c^2 + ab & \text{if } \Lambda(Q_R^K) = 0, \\ ab & \text{if } \Lambda(Q_R^K) = 1, \\ a^2 + ab + sb^2 & \text{if } \Lambda(Q_R^K) = -1, \end{cases}$$

plus, if $k = 2m$,

$$(Em) \quad a^{q^m} b \in GF(q^m).$$

Again here $s \in F$ is an element with $\text{Tr}_F(s) = 1$.

Proof. We have by (1.1)(1) that the quadratic forms with radical of codimension 2 are

$$\operatorname{tr}(cx)^2 + \operatorname{tr}(ax)\operatorname{tr}(bx) \quad \operatorname{tr}(ax)\operatorname{tr}(bx) \quad \operatorname{tr}(ax)^2 + \operatorname{tr}(ax)\operatorname{tr}(bx) + s\operatorname{tr}(bx)^2,$$

where the invariants are 0, 1, -1 , respectively (see [9, 3.1]). The computation of $\operatorname{tr}(ax)\operatorname{tr}(bx)$ in (1.1)(2) gives the Eqs. (Ei) for $1 \leq i \leq h$. (Em) follows as

$$\operatorname{tr}(a^{q^m}bx^{q^m+1}) = 0 \quad \text{iff} \quad a^{q^m}b \in GF(q^m),$$

by (1.2). And $\operatorname{tr}(cx)^2 = \operatorname{tr}((cx)^2) = \operatorname{tr}(c^2x \cdot x)$ yields the three forms of (E0). \square

2. The main theorem

We begin with three lemmas needed to solve Eqs. (Ei).

Lemma 2.1. Suppose $y^2 = y + z$. Then

$$y^{2^i} = y + z + z^2 + z^4 + \cdots + z^{2^{i-1}}.$$

Proof. Induction. \square

The following identity is well-known and may be derived in many ways. For instance, one may take Waring's identity, expressing the sum of two n th powers in terms of a Dickson polynomial, modulo 2. We use instead a simple induction argument.

Lemma 2.2. Let $u = x + y$ and $v = xy$. Then

$$x^{2^n+1} + y^{2^n+1} = u^{2^n+1} + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} u^{2^n+1-2^{i+1}} v^{2^i}.$$

Proof. By induction,

$$\begin{aligned} x^{2^{n+1}+1} + y^{2^{n+1}+1} &= (x^{2^n} + y^{2^n})(x^{2^n+1} + y^{2^n+1}) + x^{2^n}y^{2^n+1} + x^{2^n+1}y^{2^n} \\ &= u^{2^n} \left(u^{2^n+1} + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} u^{2^n+1-2^{i+1}} v^{2^i} \right) + uv^{2^n} \\ &= u^{2^{n+1}+1} + \sum_{i=0}^n u^{2^{n+1}+1-2^{i+1}} v^{2^i}, \end{aligned}$$

as desired. \square

The following highly technical lemma is need to compute the invariant \mathcal{A} in one case.

Lemma 2.3. *Let $v = 2^{3^r}$ and let*

$$g_v(x) = x^{v+1}(1 + x^{-2} + x^{-4} + \cdots + x^{-v}) + 1.$$

Let δ be a root of $g_v(x)$ in some extension of F . Then

- (1) $\delta \in GF(v^3) \setminus GF(v)$,
- (2) $\delta^{2v} + \delta^{v+1} + \delta^2 = 1$,
- (3) $\delta^{v^2+1} + \delta^{2v} = 1$,
- (4) $\delta^2 + \delta^{v^2+v} = 1$.

Proof. We have

$$1 + \delta^{-2} + \delta^{-4} + \cdots + \delta^{-v} = \delta^{-(v+1)}.$$

Add this to its square to get

$$\delta^{-2} + \delta^{-2v} = \delta^{-(v+1)} + \delta^{-2(v+1)}.$$

Multiply by $\delta^{2(v+1)}$ to get (2).

Re-write (2) by dividing by δ^2

$$(5) \quad \delta^{2(v-1)} + \delta^{v-1} + (1 + \delta^{-2}) = 0.$$

This has the form $y^2 + y + z = 0$ with $y = \delta^{v-1}$ and $z = 1 + \delta^{-2}$. By (1.4)

$$\delta^{(v-1)v} = \delta^{v-1} + z + z^2 + \cdots + z^{v/2}.$$

As v is an odd power of 2 there are an odd number of z^i terms. So

$$\begin{aligned} \delta^{(v-1)v} &= \delta^{v-1} + 1 + \delta^{-2} + \delta^{-4} + \cdots + \delta^{-v} \\ &= \delta^{v-1} + \delta^{-(v+1)}, \end{aligned}$$

by the original equation. Then

$$\delta^{v^2+1} + \delta^{2v} = \delta^{v+1}(\delta^{v^2-v} + \delta^{v-1}) = \delta^{2v}\delta^{-2v} = 1,$$

giving (3).

Now multiply (5) by δ^{v-1} to get

$$\begin{aligned} \delta^{3(v-1)} &= \delta^{2(v-1)} + \delta^{v-1} + \delta^{v-3} \\ &= 1 + \delta^{-2} + \delta^{v-3}, \end{aligned}$$

using (5). Multiply by δ^{v+3} to get $\delta^{4v} = \delta^{v+3} + \delta^{v+1} + \delta^{2v}$. Apply (2), divide by δ^2 and apply (2) again:

$$(6) \quad \begin{aligned} \delta^{4v} + \delta^{v+3} &= \delta^2 + 1, \\ \delta^{4v-2} + \delta^{v+1} &= 1 + \delta^{-2}, \\ \delta^{4v-2} + \delta^{-2} &= \delta^{2v} + \delta^2. \end{aligned}$$

Next divide (3) by δ

$$(7) \quad \delta^{v^2} + \delta^{2v-1} = \delta^{-1}.$$

Square (7) and apply (6)

$$(8) \quad \begin{aligned} \delta^{2v^2} + \delta^{4v-2} &= \delta^{-2}, \\ \delta^{2v^2} &= \delta^{2v} + \delta^2. \end{aligned}$$

Now raise (7) to the v th power

$$\begin{aligned} \delta^{v^3} &= \delta^{2v^2-v} + \delta^{-v} \\ &= \delta^{-v}(\delta^{2v^2} + 1) \\ &= \delta^{-v}(\delta^{2v} + \delta^2 + 1) \quad \text{by (8)} \\ &= \delta^{-v}\delta^{v+1} = \delta, \end{aligned}$$

using (2). Hence $\delta \in GF(v^3)$, giving (1). If $\delta \in GF(v)$ then $\delta^{v^2+1} = \delta^2$ and $\delta^{2v} = \delta^2$ also which contradicts (3). Thus $\delta \notin GF(v)$.

Lastly, re-write (3)

$$1 = \delta^{v^2+1} + \delta^{2v} = \delta^{v^3+v^2} + \delta^{2v} = (\delta^{v^2+v} + \delta^2)^v.$$

Hence $\delta^{v^2+v} + \delta^2 = 1$, giving (4).

Set

$$\text{Ad}(x) = \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ d-j}}^h x^{q^j}.$$

Theorem 2.4. Let $R = \sum_{i=0}^h \varepsilon_i x^{q^i}$, where each $\varepsilon_i \in GF(2)$ and $h = \lfloor (k-1)/2 \rfloor$. Then Q_R^K has radical of codimension 2 iff

- (1) $3|k$ and $R = A3$ or $x + A3$, or
- (2) $4|k$ and $R = A2$ or $x + A2$.

The classification in these cases (assuming the restriction on k) is

$$\begin{aligned} \Lambda(Q_{A2}^K) &= -1, \\ \Lambda(Q_{x+A2}^K) &= \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } t \text{ is odd,} \\ -1 & \text{if } t \text{ is even,} \end{cases} \\ \Lambda(Q_{A3}^K) &= 0, \\ \lambda(Q_{x+A3}^K) &= \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } t \text{ is even,} \\ -1 & \text{if } t \text{ is odd.} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Recall that $q = 2^t$.

Proof. In the first half of the proof we find all extensions K , all independent $a, b, c \in K$, and all ε_i , $i \geq 1$, that satisfy Eqs. (Ei), for $i \geq 1$, and (Em). We will see that R must be $A2, x + A2, A3$ or $x + A3$ with the desired restrictions on k .

Set $u = a^{q-1} + b^{q-1}$ and $v = ab$. Then (E1) is $uv = \varepsilon_1$. If $\varepsilon_1 = 0$ then either $a = 0$, $b = 0$ or $a^{q-1} = b^{q-1}$ (and so $a = \lambda b$ for some $\lambda \in F$), contradicting the independence of a, b over F . Thus $\varepsilon_1 = 1$ and $u = 1/v$.

Now (E2) is

$$\begin{aligned} ab((a^{q-1})^{q+1} + (b^{q-1})^{q+1}) &= \varepsilon_2, \\ v \left[u^{q+1} + \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} u^{q+1-2^{i+1}} (v^{q-1})^{2^i} \right] &= \varepsilon_2, \end{aligned}$$

using (2.2). Replacing u by $1/v$ and multiplying by v^q yields

$$(2.5) \quad \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} v^{2^i(q+1)} = \varepsilon_2 v^q.$$

We first treat the case of $\varepsilon_2 = 0$. Set $w = v^{q+1}$. Then, by (2.5), $w^{q/2} + \dots + w + 1 = 0$. Hence $w^q = w$, $w \in F$ and $\text{Tr}_F(w) = 1$.

Now the $(q+1)$ st roots of $w \in F$ lie in $L = GF(q^2)$ since if z generates $GF(q^2)^*$ then z^{q+1} generates $GF(q)^*$. Thus $v = ab \in L$. As $\varepsilon_2 = 0$ we have $(a/b)^{q^2-1} = 1$ and so $a/b \in L$ also. Thus $a, b \in L$. Now if $a, b \in F$ then they are dependent over F . Hence at least one of a, b is in $L \setminus F$. Say $a \in L \setminus F$. So if $a \in K$ then $2|k$.

By construction, $\varepsilon_1 = 1$ and $\varepsilon_2 = 0$. As $a \in L$ we have

$$a^{q^i} = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } i \text{ is even,} \\ a^q & \text{if } i \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$

and similarly for b . Hence for $i \geq 3$

$$\varepsilon_i = a^{q^i} b + ab^{q^i} = \begin{cases} \varepsilon_1 & \text{if } i \text{ is odd,} \\ \varepsilon_2 & \text{if } i \text{ is even.} \end{cases}$$

Thus $R = A2$ or $x + A2$.

Lastly, we know $k = 2m$ is even so we check (Em). If m is odd then

$$a^{q^m}b = a^qb = a^{q-1}v = a^{q-1}/u \in L \setminus F,$$

so that $a^{q^m}b \notin GF(q^m)$. And if m is even then $a^{q^m}b = ab \in GF(q^2) \subset GF(q^m)$. Thus to have a solution in K we require that m be even, that is, that $4|k$.

We now treat the case of $\varepsilon_2 = 1$. From (2.5) we have

$$v^{(q+1)q/2} + v^{(q+1)q/4} + \dots + v^{q+1} + 1 = v^q.$$

Squaring this gives

$$\begin{aligned} v^{(q+1)q} &= v^{(q+1)q/2} + \dots + v^{(q+1)2} + 1 + v^{2q} \\ (2.6) \quad &= v^{q+1} + v^q + v^{2q}, \end{aligned}$$

by (2.5). Divide this by v^q and then raise to the q th power:

$$\begin{aligned} (2.7) \quad v^{q^2} &= 1 + v + v^q, \\ v^{q^3} &= 1 + v^q + v^{q^2} = v. \end{aligned}$$

Thus $v \in E \equiv GF(q^3)$ and $\text{tr}_{E/F}(v) = 1$.

Now $va^{q-1} = a^qb$ and $vb^{q-1} = ab^q$ sum to 1 and their product is $a^{q+1}b^{q+1} = v^{q+1}$. Thus va^{q-1} and vb^{q-1} are roots of $y^2 + y + v^{q+1} \in E[y]$. Now

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Tr}_E(v^{q+1}) &= \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} v^{2^i(q+1)} + \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} v^{2^i(q+1)q} + \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} v^{2^i(q+1)q^2} \\ &= (1 + v^q) + (1 + v^q)^q + (1 + v^q)^{q^2} \quad \text{by (2.5)} \\ &= 1 + v^q + v^{q^2} + v^{q^3} = 0, \end{aligned}$$

by (2.7). Thus $y^2 + y + v^{q+1}$ has its roots in E , by [7, 3.79]. So a^{q-1} and b^{q-1} are in E .

Next, by (2.1)

$$\begin{aligned} y^q &= y + v^{q+1} + v^{2(q+1)} + \dots + v^{(q+1)q/2}, \\ y^q &= y + 1 + v^q, \quad \text{by (2.5)} \\ y^{q^2} &= y + v^q + v^{q^2}, \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} y^{q^2+q} &= y^2 + y(1 + v^{q^2}) + v^q + v^{q^2} + v^{2q} + v^{q^2+q}, \\ &= yv^{q^2} + v^{q^2}, \quad \text{by (2.7)} \end{aligned}$$

$$y^{q^2+q+1} = yv^{q^2} + v^{q^2+q+1} + yv^{q^2} = v^{q^2+q+1}.$$

Hence, dividing by v^{q^2+q+1} yields $a^{q^3-1} = 1 = b^{q^3-1}$. Thus $a, b \in E$. In particular,

$$\varepsilon_3 = a^{q^3}b + ab^{q^3} = ab + ab = 0.$$

By construction $\varepsilon_1 = 1 = \varepsilon_2$. And

$$a^{q^i} = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } i \equiv 0 \pmod{3}, \\ a^q & \text{if } i \equiv 1 \pmod{3}, \\ a^{q^2} & \text{if } i \equiv 2 \pmod{3}. \end{cases}$$

Thus for $i \geq 3$, $\varepsilon_i = \varepsilon_j$ where $j \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $i \equiv j \pmod{3}$. Hence $R = A3$ or $x + A3$.

Again, if $a, b \in F$ then they are dependent over F . Hence at least one of a, b is in $E \setminus F$. Say $a \in E \setminus F$. So if $a \in K$ then $3|k$. Finally, if $k = 2m$ is even we must check (Em). But $a^{q^m}b \in E = GF(q^3) \subset GF(q^m)$, as $3|k$, so (Em) is satisfied. This completes the first half of the proof.

In the second half of the proof we show that each of $R = A2, x + A2, A3$ and $x + A3$ does give a quadratic form with radical of codimension 2 (assuming the restrictions on k) and compute their invariants. We do this by finding explicit solutions to the equations (Ei). There are six cases.

First consider Q_{A2}^K when $4|k$. Fix an $s \in F$ with $\text{Tr}_F(s) = 1$. Then $y^2 + y + s \in F[y]$ is irreducible. Let $\alpha \in GF(q^2) \subset K$ be a root. Let β be a primitive element of $GF(q^2)$. Set $b = \beta^{q-1}$ and $a = \alpha b$. These are independent over F as $\alpha \notin F$. We compute

$$(E0) \quad a^2 + ab + sb^2 = b^2((a/b)^2 + (a/b) + s) = 0,$$

$$(E1) \quad a^qb + ab^q = (\alpha^q + \alpha)b^{q+1} = \text{Tr}_F(s)\delta^{q^2-1} = 1,$$

$$(E2) \quad a^{q^2}b + ab^{q^2} = ab + ab = 0.$$

Also $ab \in GF(q^2)$ implies $\varepsilon_{i+2} = \varepsilon_i$ for $i \geq 1$. If $k = 2m$ then $a^{q^m}b \in GF(q^2) \subset GF(q^m)$ as m is even, so that (Em) is satisfied. Hence

$$\text{tr}(ax)^2 + \text{tr}(ax)\text{tr}(bx) + s \text{tr}(bx)^2 = Q_{A2}^K(x).$$

By (1.3) Q_{A2}^K has radical with codimension 2 and invariant -1 .

Next consider Q_{x+A2}^K when $4|k$ and $q = 2^t$ with t odd. Let $\beta \in GF(q^2) \subset K$ be primitive. As t is odd, $3|(q+1)$. Set

$$a = \beta^{(q-2)(q+1)}\beta^{(q+1)/3}, \quad b = \beta^{2(q+1)/3}.$$

Note that a and b are independent over F as $(b/a)^{q-1} = \beta^{(q^2-1)/3} \neq 1$ so that $b/a \notin F$. We compute

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(E0)} \quad & ab = \beta^{(q-2)(q+1)} \beta^{q+1} = \beta^{q^2-1} = 1, \\ \text{(E1)} \quad & a^q b + ab^q = a^{q-1} + b^{q-1} = \beta^{(q^2-1)/3} + \beta^{2(q^2-1)/3} = 1, \\ \text{(E2)} \quad & a^{q^2} b + ab^{q^2} = ab + ab = 0. \end{aligned}$$

As in the previous case $\varepsilon_{i+2} = \varepsilon_i$ for $i \geq 1$ and (Em) is satisfied. Hence $\text{tr}(ax)\text{tr}(bx) = Q_{x+A_2}^K(x)$ is, by (1.3), a form of codimension 2 radical and invariant 1.

Next consider $Q_{x+A_2}^K$ when $4|k$ and t even. Fix $s \in F$ with $\text{Tr}_F(s) = 1$. Then $\text{Tr}_F(s+1) = \text{Tr}_F(s) = 1$ as t is even. Thus $x^2 + x + s + 1$ is irreducible over F . Let $\alpha \in GF(q^2) \subset K$ be a root. Set $a = \alpha$ and $b = 1$; they are independent over F as $\alpha \notin F$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(E0)} \quad & a^2 + ab + sb^2 = \alpha^2 + \alpha + s = 1, \\ \text{(E1)} \quad & a^q b + ab^q = \alpha^q + \alpha = \text{Tr}_F(s+1) = 1, \\ \text{(E2)} \quad & a^{q^2} b + ab^{q^2} = ab + ab = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Again $\varepsilon_{i+2} = \varepsilon_i$ for $i \geq 1$ and (Em) is satisfied. Hence $\text{tr}(ax)^2 + \text{tr}(ax)\text{tr}(bx) + \text{str}(bx)^2 = Q_{x+A_2}^K(x)$ is, by (1.3), a form of codimension 2 radical and invariant -1 .

We now consider $Q_{A_3}^K$ when $3|k$. Let 3^r be the highest power of 3 dividing t so that $t = 3^r t_0$ with $(3, t_0) = 1$. Set $v = 2^{3^r}$ so that $q = v^{t_0}$. Let δ be a root of the polynomial g_v of (2.3). Then $\delta \in GF(v^3) \subset GF(q^3) \subset K$ by (2.3) (1). Set $a = \delta^v$, $b = \delta$ and $c = \delta^v + \delta + 1$. We first check that a, b, c are independent over $F = GF(q)$. If not then 1 is in the F -span of a and b . Hence $a = gb + h$ for some $g, h \in F$ and so $\delta^v = g\delta + h$. We plug into (2.3) (2):

$$\begin{aligned} & \delta^{2v} + \delta^{v+1} + \delta^2 = 1, \\ \text{(2.8)} \quad & h^2 + h\delta + (1 + g + g^2)\delta^2 = 1. \end{aligned}$$

Now $\delta \notin GF(v)$, by (2.3)(1), and so has degree 3 over $GF(v)$. As $(3, t_0) = 1$, δ has degree 3 over $F = GF(v^{t_0})$ as well. Thus $1, \delta, \delta^2$ are independent over F . Then (2.8) gives $h^2 = 1$ and $h = 0$, a contradiction. Thus a, b, c are independent over F .

We compute (E0)

$$c^2 + ab = 1 + \delta^2 + \delta^{2v} + \delta^{v+1} = 0, \quad \text{by (2.3) (2).}$$

For the other equations, first suppose $t_0 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$. Then $\delta^q = \delta^{v^{t_0}} = \delta^v$ as $\delta^{v^3} = \delta$. Similarly, $\delta^{q^2} = \delta^{v^{2t_0}} = \delta^{v^2}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(E1)} \quad & a^q b + ab^q = \delta^{v^2+1} + \delta^{2v} = 1 \quad \text{by (2.3) (3),} \\ \text{(E2)} \quad & a^{q^2} b + ab^{q^2} = \delta^{v^3+1} + \delta^{v^2+v} = \delta^2 + \delta^{v^2+v} = 1 \quad \text{by (2.3) (4),} \\ \text{(E3)} \quad & a^{q^3} b + ab^{q^3} = ab + ab = 0. \end{aligned}$$

When $t_0 = 2 \pmod{3}$ then $\delta^q = \delta^{v^2}$ and $\delta^{q^2} = \delta^v$. Then

$$(E1) \quad a^q b + ab^q = \delta^{v^3+1} + \delta^{v^2+v} = 1,$$

$$(E2) \quad a^{q^2} b + ab^{q^2} = \delta^{v^2+1} + \delta^{2v} = 1,$$

$$(E3) \quad a^{q^3} b + ab^{q^3} = ab + ab = 0.$$

Also $\varepsilon_{i+3} = \varepsilon_i$ for $i \geq 1$ and if $k = 2m$ then $a^{q^m} b \in GF(q^3) \subset GF(q^m)$ so that (Em) holds. Hence Q_{A3}^K has radical of codimension 2 and invariant 0.

Next consider Q_{x+A3}^K when $3|k$ and t is odd. Since t is odd we can pick $s = 1$ as our element of F with absolute trace 1. Let v, δ, a and b be as in the previous case. We know a, b are independent over F and $\varepsilon_1 = 1 = \varepsilon_2, \varepsilon_3 = 0, \varepsilon_{i+3} = \varepsilon_i$ for $i \geq 1$ and that (Em) holds. We need only check (E0):

$$a^2 + ab + b^2 = \delta^{2v} + \delta^{v+1} + \delta^2 = 1$$

by (2.3) (2). Hence Q_{x+A3}^K has radical of codimension 2 and invariant -1 .

Lastly, we consider Q_{x+A3} when $3|k$ and t is even. Then $GF(q^3) \subset K$; let γ be a primitive element of $GF(q^3)$. As t is even, 3 divides $q^2 + q + 1$. Set $\varphi = \gamma^{(q^2+q+1)/3}$. Then φ has order $3(q-1)$ so that $\varphi^{2(q-1)} + \varphi^{q-1} + 1 = 0$. Set $a = \varphi^{-2}$ and $b = \varphi^2$. They are independent over F as $(b/a)^{q-1} = \varphi^{4(q-1)} = \varphi^{q-1} \neq 1$ so that $b/a \notin F$. We compute

$$(E0) \quad ab = 1,$$

$$(E1) \quad a^q b + ab^q = a^{q-1} + b^{q-1} = \varphi^{q-1} + \varphi^{2(q-1)} = 1,$$

$$(E2) \quad a^{q^2} b + ab^{q^2} = (\varphi^{q-1})^{q+1} + (\varphi^{q-1})^{q+1} = \varphi^{q-1} + \varphi^{2(q-1)} = 1,$$

$$(E3) \quad a^{q^3} b + ab^{q^3} = ab + ab = 0.$$

Also $\varepsilon_{i+3} = \varepsilon_i$ for $i \geq 1$ and if $k = 2m$ then $a^{q^m} b \in GF(q^3) \subset GF(q^m)$ so that (Em) holds. Hence Q_{x+A3}^K has radical of codimension 2 and invariant 1. \square

3. Artin–Schreier curves with many rational points

We again consider polynomials

$$R(x) = \sum_{i=0}^h \varepsilon_i x^{q^i},$$

with each $\varepsilon_i \in GF(2) = F$ and $h = \lfloor k - 1/2 \rfloor$. The Artin–Schreier curve is

$$C_R: y^q + y = xR(x).$$

This has genus $g = \frac{1}{2}(q-1)\deg R(x)$ by [8, VI.4.1]. We consider both the curve and the quadratic form over K . The number of points in K -projective space on C_R is

$$\#C_R(K) = qN(Q_R^K) + 1 = q^k + \Lambda(Q_R^K)(q-1)\sqrt{q^{k+w}} + 1,$$

where $w = \dim \text{rad}(Q_R^K)$. We will compare this to the Hasse–Weil bound

$$\#C_R(K) \leq q^k + 1 + 2g\sqrt{q^k} = q^k + 1 + (q-1)q^\ell \sqrt{q^k},$$

where $\ell = \deg R(x)$. Clearly equality will hold in the Hasse–Weil bound only if k is even.

Theorem 3.1. *Suppose $k = 2m$ and the top coefficient $\varepsilon_{m-1} = 1$. Then the number of points on C_R equals the Hasse–Weil bound iff one of the following holds:*

- (1) t is odd, $R = x + A2$ and $4|k$,
- (2) t is even, $R = x + A3$ and $6|k$.

Proof. Note that $\deg R(x) = \ell = m-1$. The number of points on C_R equals the Hasse–Weil bound iff

$$\begin{aligned} \Lambda(Q_R^K)(q-1)\sqrt{q^{k+w}} &= (q-1)q^{m-1}\sqrt{q^k}, \\ \Lambda(Q_R^K)\sqrt{q^w} &= q^{m-1}, \\ w = 2(m-1) = k-2 \quad \text{and} \quad \Lambda(Q_R^K) &= 1. \end{aligned}$$

This holds, by (1.7), iff either (1) or (2) hold. \square

The restriction that $\varepsilon_{m-1} = 1$ is necessary.

Example. Let $k = 12$ so that $\ell = 5$. Set $R = x + x^4 + x^{16}$. Then $\varepsilon_4 = 1$ and $\varepsilon_5 = 0$. In particular, the genus of C_R is $g = 2^{4-1} = 8$. Also $\dim \text{rad}(Q_R^K) = 8$ and $\Lambda(Q_R^K) = 1$. This may be checked as follows:

Let δ satisfy $\delta^6 = \delta + 1$. Set

$$a_1 = \delta^{28} \quad b_1 = \delta^{56} \quad a_2 = \delta^7 \quad b_2 = \delta^{35}.$$

Then $a_1b_1 + a_2b_2 = 1$. Set

$$\varepsilon_i = a_1^{2^i} b_1 + a_1 b_1^{2^i} + a_2^{2^i} b_2 + a_2 b_2^{2^i}.$$

Then we may compute that $\varepsilon_1 = 0$, $\varepsilon_2 = 1$, $\varepsilon_3 = 0$, $\varepsilon_4 = 1$, $\varepsilon_5 = 0$, $\varepsilon_6 = 0$ and $\varepsilon_{i+6} = \varepsilon_i$ for $i \geq 1$. Thus

$$\begin{aligned} R &= \operatorname{tr}(a_1x)\operatorname{tr}(b_1x) + \operatorname{tr}(a_2x)\operatorname{tr}(b_2x) \\ Q_R^K &\simeq x_1x_2 + x_3x_4, \end{aligned}$$

giving the stated dimension of the radical and the invariant \mathcal{A} .

Now

$$\begin{aligned} N(Q_R^K) &= \frac{1}{2}(2^{12} + \sqrt{2^{12+8}}) = \frac{1}{2}(2^{12} + 2^{10}), \\ \#C_R(K) &= 1 + 2^{12} + 2^{10}. \end{aligned}$$

The Hasse–Weil bound is $1 + 2^{12} + 2 \cdot 8\sqrt{2^{12}} = 1 + 2^{12} + 2^{10}$. Hence there are other Artin–Schreier curves meeting the Hasse–Weil bound besides those of (3.1).

4. Factoring linearized polynomials

Here we will restrict to the case $q = 2$. For $R = \sum_{j=0}^h \varepsilon_j x^{2^j}$ define

$$R^*(x) = \sum_{j=1}^h \varepsilon_j \left(x^{2^{h+j}} + x^{2^{h-j}} \right).$$

Then by [4, Lemma 8]

$$\operatorname{rad} Q_R^K = \{a \in K : R^*(a) = 0\}.$$

Notice that R^* is a self-reciprocal, linearized polynomial and that any self-reciprocal, linearized polynomial of degree 2^{2h} arises in this way. If S is a self-reciprocal, linearized polynomial we will say T is the associated form if T is linearized and $T^* = S$.

Proposition 4.1. *Suppose k is even and $2h = k - 2$. Let S be a self-reciprocal, linearized polynomial of degree $2h$ with associated form T . The following are equivalent:*

- (1) S divides $x^{2^k} + x$.
- (2) All irreducible factors of S have degree d , where d divides k .
- (3) Either $6|k$ and $T = A_3$; or $4|k$ and $T = A_2$.

Proof. (1) \leftrightarrow (2) is clear. (1) implies every root of S lies in $K = GF(2^k)$. Since Q_T^K has a radical consisting of the roots of S in K , we have $\dim \operatorname{rad} Q_T^K = k - 2$ and so

of codimension 2. This gives (3). Conversely, (3) gives Q_T^K has codimension 2 radical and so every root of S lies in K .

Proposition 4.2. *Let k be odd and $2h = k - 1$. Let S be a self-reciprocal, linearized polynomial of degree $2h$ with associated form T . The following are equivalent:*

- (1) S divides $(x^{2^k} + x)(x^{2^k} + x + 1)$.
- (2) Every irreducible factor of S either has degree d (where $d|k$), or has the form $p(x^2 + x + 1)$, where p is irreducible of degree d (where again $d|k$).
- (3) $3|k$ and $T = A3$.

Proof. (1) \rightarrow (2). Let $q(x)$ be an irreducible factor of S . Then q divides q_k or $q_k + 1$, where $q_k = x^{2^k} + x$. In the first case, we have $\deg q = d$, where $d|k$. So suppose we are in the second case.

Now the roots of S not in K look like $a + \beta$, where $a \in K$ is a root and $\beta^2 = \beta + 1$. Namely, say $S(\alpha) = 0$ and $\alpha \notin K$. Then $q_k(\alpha) = 1$. Now

$$\beta^{2^j} = \begin{cases} \beta, & \text{if } j \text{ is even,} \\ \beta^2, & \text{if } j \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

In particular, $q_k(\beta) = 1$. Since either both $h \pm i$ are even or both are odd, we have $\beta^{h+i} + \beta^{h-i} = 0$ and so $S(\beta) = 0$. S and q_k are linearized so that their roots are additive. Hence $S(\alpha + \beta) = 0$ and $q_k(\alpha + \beta) = 0$. Thus $a = \alpha + \beta$ is a root of S in K .

Pick a root of $q(x)$, say $a + \beta$, where $a \in K$ is also a root of S . Now $a^2 + a$ is also a root of S . Let $p(x)$ be the irreducible polynomial of $a^2 + a$. Set $d = \deg p$; note that $d|k$. Set $q_0(x) = p(x^2 + x + 1)$. Now

$$q_0(a + \beta) = p(a^2 + a + \beta^2 + \beta + 1) = p(a^2 + a) = 0.$$

Thus $q(x)$ divides $q_0(x)$. We will be done if we show $\deg q = 2d$, the same as $\deg q_0$.

Now $\deg q = [F(a + \beta) : F]$. We have

$$(a + \beta)^2 + (a + \beta) + 1 = a^2 + a.$$

Hence

$$F \subset F(a^2 + a) \subset F(a + \beta).$$

Moreover, if $a + \beta \in F(a^2 + a)$ then $\beta \in F(a)$. But $a \in K$ and $[K : F]$ is odd, so this is impossible. Hence

$$[F(a + \beta) : F] \geq 2[F(a^2 + a) : F] = 2 \deg p = 2d.$$

Thus $q(x) = q_0(x) = p(x^2 + x + 1)$.

(2) \rightarrow (1). Let π_1 be the product of irreducible factors of S that are of degree d , with $d|k$. Then $\pi_1|q_k$. Let π_2 be the product of the irreducible factors of S of type $p(x^2 + x + 1)$, with p irreducible of degree d , $d|k$. Let π_3 be the product of the p 's. Then $\pi_2(x) = \pi_3(x^2 + x + 1)$ and $\pi_3|q_k$. Hence π_2 divides

$$q_k(x^2 + x + 1) = x^{2^{k+1}} + x^{2^k} + x^2 + x = q_k^2 + q_k = q_k(q_k + 1).$$

Moreover, no root of π_2 is in K (as each irreducible factor has even degree). Thus π_2 divides $q_k + 1$. And so $S = \pi_1\pi_2$ divides $q_k(q_k + 1)$.

(1) \rightarrow (3). Let A denote the roots of S that are also roots of q_k and let B be the roots of S that are also roots of $q_k + 1$. As before, $S(\beta) = 0$ and $\beta \notin K$. The map $A \rightarrow B$ by $a \mapsto a + \beta$ is bijective. Hence $|A| = 2^{k-2}$. Now $\text{rad } Q_T^K = A$ and so has codimension 2. Apply the main Theorem (2.4) to get (3).

(3) \rightarrow (1). We have that the codimension of $\text{rad } Q_T^K$ is 2 so that 2^{k-2} roots of S lie in K . The other roots of S are $a + \beta$, for $a \in K$ a root of S . Now each root $a \in K$ is a root of q_k . And for each $a + \beta$ we have

$$(a + \beta)^{2^k} + (a + \beta) + 1 = (a^{2^k} + a) + (\beta^{2^k} + \beta + 1) = 0,$$

as k is odd. So S divides $q_k(q_k + 1)$. \square

References

- [1] E.R. Berlekamp, Algebraic Coding Theory, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1968.
- [2] P. Delsarte, J.-M. Goethals, Irreducible binary codes of even dimension, in: 1970 Proceedings of the Second Chapel Hill Conference on Combinatorial Mathematics and Its Applications, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, NC, 1970, pp. 100–113.
- [3] C. Ding, A. Salomaa, P. Solé, X. Tian, Three constructions of authentication/secretary codes, in: M. Fossorier, T. Høholdt, A. Poli (Eds.), Applied algebra Algebraic Algorithms and Error-Correcting Codes (Toulouse, 2003). Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol. 2643, Springer, Berlin, 2003, pp. 24–33.
- [4] R. Fitzgerald, J. Yucas, Pencils of quadratic forms over GF (2), preprint.
- [5] K. Khoo, G. Gong, D.R. Stinson, New family of Gold-like sequences, in: IEEE International Symposium on Information Theory 02, 2002, p. 181.
- [6] A. Klapper, Cross-correlation of geometric series in characteristic two, Des. Codes Cryptogr. 3 (1993) 347–377.
- [7] R. Lidl, H. Niederreiter, Finite Fields, second ed. Encyclopedia of Mathematics and Its Applications, vol. 20, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1997.
- [8] H. Stichtenoth, Algebraic Function Fields and Codes, Universitext, Springer, Berlin, 1993.
- [9] G. van der Geer, M. van der Vlugt, Quadratic forms, generalized Hamming weights of codes and curves with many points, J. Number Theory 59 (1996) 20–36.